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AUTHOR Thomas, Patricia J.
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ABSTRACT

As part of a longitudinal research project to investigate attrition among female enlistees, a study was conducted to assess the differences between male and female recruits in background, occupational values, and motivation for enlistment. A sample of 1,000 men and 1,000 women was administered a questionnaire during the early weeks of recruit training. The findings (as discussed and as presented in a series of seven tables in the report) revealed the following: (1) although men and women came from different backgrounds, they enlisted for similar reasons, i.e., to make something of their lives, to acquire education and training, and to travel; (2) men had different occupational values as they were more interested in rewards such as advancement and recognition while women preferred jobs that were people-oriented and altruistic, were located in a clean, cheerful environment, and did not involve machinery or physical risk. It was concluded that the values of many of the women were not consistent with the nontraditional jobs to which they might be assigned. To attract women with compatible values, recommendations were proposed to provide the applicant pool with information about the Navy's utilization of women and to reorient recruiters. (EG)

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WHY WOMEN ENLIST: THE NAVY AS AN OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE

Patricia J. Thomas

Reviewed by
Robert Penn

Approved by
James J. Regan
Technical Director

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Women and men enlisting in the Navy today are making a similar occupational choice now that most of the barriers to equal opportunity have been lifted. Yet there is a popularly held belief, and some evidence for this belief, that the motives for joining and work values of female and male enlistees differ.

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Using an experimental questionnaire, this study assessed the background, motivation-for-enlistment, and occupational values of 1000 recruits of each sex. The results indicated that women and men entering the Navy have different backgrounds but enlist for the same reasons; i.e., to make something of their lives, to acquire education and training, and to travel. The sexes differed, however, on two-thirds of the occupational value items. Men were more interested in getting ahead in their jobs and women placed a higher value on a clean, cheerful environment and in helping others. Women also were more negative than men towards jobs involving work with materials or machines rather than people, a physical risk, and monotony.

It was concluded that the values of many of the women were not consistent with the nontraditional jobs to which they were apt to be assigned. Several recommendations were made to provide the applicant pool with more information about the Navy's utilization of women and to reorient recruiting efforts so that women with compatible values are enlisted.

FOREWORD

This research and development was performed under Work Unit 55.521.021.03.03, Personnel Assimilation and Supervision. This report represents the first phase of a longitudinal study designed to investigate attrition among first term female enlistees. Future reports will address personal and institutional factors leading to a premature discharge from the Navy and the psychological variables relevant to the prediction of effective performance.

The cooperation and help provided by the Recruit Training Command, Orlando, Florida in administering the initial questionnaire is gratefully acknowledged. Appreciation is also expressed to Ms. Constance Blankenship for her help in the development of the questionnaires and processing of the data.

J. J. CLARKIN
Commanding Officer

SUMMARY

Problem

Women and men entering the modern Navy should expect to be assigned to billets without regard to their gender to the extent permitted by law. However, research in the civilian sector indicates that the two sexes often have different work values. If such results are correct for Navy enlisted personnel, women are likely to experience considerable dissatisfaction when assigned to traditionally masculine jobs.

Objective

The purpose of this study, which is part of a longitudinal research project, is to investigate the occupational values and motivation-for-enlistment of female and male recruits.

Approach

Samples of 1,000 women and men were administered a specially designed questionnaire during 1975 while in the early weeks of recruit training. The items in the questionnaire assessed background variables, the enlistment decision, and work values. Differences between the responses of women and men were determined by means of a chi-square test.

Findings

Women and men enlisting in the Navy came from different backgrounds but joined for similar reasons. The women deliberated longer and made more inquiries than the men before deciding to join the Navy, but had less information about the realities of service life.

The responses of the two sexes differed on two-thirds of the occupational value items. Men appeared to be concerned with rewards (advancement, recognition), whereas women expressed a need for people-oriented, altruistic work. Several common female stereotypes were supported by the data; that is, the women's desire for a clean, cheerful working environment and dislike for work involving machinery or physical risk. The probable dissatisfaction of these women in the nontraditional billets to which they may be assigned was noted.

Conclusions

It was concluded that female and male recruits represent two statistically different populations. However, the number of similarities in occupational values probably is a reflection of their mutual choice of the Navy.

Recommendations

The following steps should be taken to attract more women having values compatible with Navy jobs:

1. Revise recruiting materials to show women in nontraditional billets.

2. Modify the training of recruiters to include detailed information on policies unique to women.

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INTRODUCTION

Problem

During the past 5 years, the number of women in the armed forces has more than tripled, partly as a result of the military's newly acknowledged realization that women represent an underutilized human resource and partly in response to the equal rights movement that has had an impact on many institutions of our American society. As a consequence, several occupations within the Navy that were formerly closed to women have been desegregated, with attention being given to maintaining an equitable overseas rotation schedule for men. Thus, the concept of sex-appropriate job specialties is disappearing from the military, except for those combat-related billets that are proscribed for women.

Women enlisting in the Navy of the 70's should expect to be utilized without regard to their gender to the extent permitted by law. However, anecdotal information indicates that the work values of female personnel are frequently inconsistent with the nontraditional jobs to which they are being assigned; instead, they seem more suited to the support billets to which military women were formerly restricted. The problem posed by this situation could be manifested as an increase in attrition. That is, if a sizable disparity exists between the values of female enlistees and those related to their work experiences, they are likely to be dissatisfied with the Navy and may try to obtain an early release from obligated duty.

Purpose

The purposes of this report, the first in a series investigating the retention of enlisted women by following a cohort group over a period of time, are to study the variables that bring women to enlist in the Navy and to determine whether men making the Navy their occupational choice differ on these variables. Because so many popularly held preconceptions about differences between the sexes are no longer tenable (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974), it was hypothesized that no significant differences between women and men would be found.

Background

Occupational choice is frequently hypothesized as a reflection of one's value system, needs, and motivations (Darley & Hagenah, 1955). That is, individuals choose work roles that they perceive will fulfill their needs. However, the occupational behavior of women is believed to be different from that of men since work per se is not considered to be a significant facet of their lives. Rather, women are stereotyped as being more concerned with pleasant surroundings and coworkers than men, and less concerned with intellectually demanding work or getting ahead on the job (Crowley, Levitin & Quinn, 1973). Bowers (1973), in his study of the work values held by Navy and civilian samples, found sex differences on 15 of the 26 measures in the civilian group but not in the military group. These findings are probably not applicable to recruits, however, since the mean age of the military women in Bower's study was 27, and those whose values were not consistent with their Navy jobs probably already had been discharged.

Motivation for enlisting in the military has received considerable attention, although the majority of studies have been conducted with male samples. Eberhart and Socrides (1953) reported that, for successful female recruits, the main conscious motivation for entering the military was a realistic search for self-improvement that had been previously blocked. Horn (1965) found that many young women who enlisted in the Navy were searching for an identity. Dissatisfaction with inconsistent discipline at home and unsatisfactory parental relationships motivated some of his respondents to join the military. Others expressed a desire to travel, to meet people, or to learn a skill as reasons for enlisting. Since these studies were conducted more than a decade ago, they may not reflect the motivation of today's female recruit. Indeed, the Air Force, in comparing the responses to an entry questionnaire of 1973 and 1974 female enlistees, reported a number of significant differences over this 1-year period. The changes most relevant to this study were: (1) the proportion indicating that a very important reason for their enlistment was that "the Air Force guaranteed me the job I wanted" rose from 26 percent to 46 percent and (2) the percentages applying for the Missile Specialist, Mechanical, and Crafts occupational areas doubled while those for Medical/Dental areas declined (Mullins, Williams, Vitola & Michelson, 1975). A recent Army study (Plog & Kahn, 1974), however, based on interviews with 87 women, provides a more traditional image of enlistment motivation. The authors found that the typical WAC recruit was reared in a small town and joined the military as an alternative to getting married, going to college, or working at an unskilled job. Interviews with seven WAC officers revealed their conviction that contemporary female recruits join for job training, money, and the opportunity to meet men, rather than the desire to serve in the military.

If perceived need fulfillment mediates occupational choice, then preconceptions about the characteristics of various jobs should be influential in this decision. Unfortunately, it is somewhat difficult for a woman to obtain a realistic conception of what military life entails since recruiters, who are the primary source of information for most applicants, are predominately male and generally uninformed about factors uniquely affecting women in the services. Thus, female recruits, more so than male, usually make a choice based on incomplete or even incorrect information. For example, women have reason to expect equal rights and responsibilities in the military because of the widely disseminated Department of Defense Human Goals Credo (1971) which states the intent "to make military and civilian service in the Department of Defense a model of equal opportunity for all regardless of race, sex, creed, or national origin." Yet, what is supported by proclamation is not necessarily supported in fact. Coye (1972) reported that Navy policies generally maintain the traditional role for female officers by imposing restrictions on their assignments. Thomas (1976) noted a similar trend for enlisted women due to the limited number of permanent shore billets in the Navy.

APPROACH

Sample

Approximately 1,000 female recruits were tested during mid-June through mid-August 1975 at the Recruit Training Command (RTC) in Orlando, Florida, the only one of the Navy's three RTCs that has facilities for newly enlisted women. A total of 1,041 men were tested at the RTCs at Orlando (N = 273) and San Diego (N = 768) during June 1975.[1] These samples were not stratified nor preselected in any manner and represented all personnel commencing recruit training during the period in which the data were gathered.

Instruments

Three experimental questionnaires--two for women and one for men--have been designed for use with the longitudinal investigation of the retention of enlisted women, of which this study is a part. There are differences among the three questionnaires, both as to number and type of items. For example, the two questionnaires for women contain 120 items--of which 57 were identical and 63, parallel. The men's version is shorter, containing only 93 items, primarily because those items tapping female role concept and personality variables were eliminated. We are concerned here only with comparing the responses of men and women to those 81 items concerning background or personal history (N = 17), motivation for enlisting in the Navy (N = 25), and occupational or work values (N = 39).

Data Analysis

The items were grouped into the three major topical areas: background variables, enlistment variables, and work values. The percentages of respondents choosing each of the options to the multiple-choice items were determined separately for the female sample and the two male samples (Orlando and San Diego). The two male samples were later combined to facilitate analyses designed to investigate the differences between the sexes.

Chi-square statistics were computed to compare the responses of the two male samples and those of the two sexes. A z-test of the difference between proportions was applied to selected items to better determine the sources for significant χ^2s.

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[1]Due to the much greater input of males than females into the Navy, the sample of men was obtained in just 2 weeks.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Differences Between Male Samples

Male recruits at Orlando and those at San Diego responded significantly differently to only 14 of the 81 items--one background variable, five enlistment variables, and eight work values. These items are presented in Table 1. As shown, recruits tested in California indicated more often that they had never come close to getting married and fewer of them were married at the time of entry into the Navy (8% versus 12% from Florida), despite a tendency (nonsignificant) for the California recruits to be older.

In regard to the enlistment variables, California recruits deliberated longer before joining the Navy and more often had the approval of their mothers and friends prior to enlistment than did the Florida recruits. Further, the latter group reported that the desire to get away from home and to better themselves were very strong motivating influences on their enlistment decision.

It is difficult to discern a meaningful pattern in the differing responses to the work value items, particularly when taken in context of other related questions that were not answered differently. The Florida recruits' greater interest in basic benefits (pay raises, vacations), however, suggests that their desire to leave home was motivated by an economic need, rather than escape from an unpleasant situation.

Because of the similarity of the two male samples, it was deemed legitimate to combine them into a single group. Thus, the results in the remainder of this section are based on comparisons of the responses of approximately 1,000 men and 1,000 women.

Differences Between Female and Male Samples

Background Variables

Responses of female and male recruits to the 17 background items are provided by Table 2. As shown, similar distributions were found only to the questions concerning childhood abode and birth position among siblings (items 3 and 6).

The data indicate that the women recruits came from smaller towns than did the men and were less interested in returning to their hometowns. While the majority of both sexes rated their homes as being "happy, most of the time," more women than men came from unhappy homes. The men had more siblings and people living in their home and showed greater variability in the size of the house their family lived in. Fifty-three percent of the men versus 44 percent of the women had moved away from home prior to joining the Navy for some reason other than marriage or going away to school.

Table 1

Items Yielding Significant χ^2 for Distributions of Responses of Male Recruits in California (CA) and Florida (FL)

Item	Response That Differs Most[a]
Background	
Have you ever come close to getting married? $\chi^2(4)=14.521$, $p < .01$	No 53% CA; 43% FL
Enlistment	
How long did your decision to enlist take? $\chi^2(3)=14.763$, $p < .01$	More than 6 months 29% CA; 19% FL
How did your mother feel about it? $\chi^2(1)=4.445$, $p < .05$	Approved 91% CA; 86% FL
How did your friends feel about it? $\chi^2(1)11.653$, $p < .001$	Approved 63% CA; 51% FL
I wanted to leave family or hometown $\chi^2(4)=12.711$, $p < .05$	Very Important/Important 17% FL; 11% CA
I wanted to better my life $\chi^2(4)=25.827$, $p < .001$	Very Important 69% FL; 52% CA
Work Values	
Feeling I am member of a team $\chi^2(4)=16.429$, $p < .01$	Don't want this in job 28% FL; 18% CA
Encourages communication with supervisor $\chi^2(4)=10.584$, $p < .05$	Essential/Important 56% FL; 47% CA
Guarantees regular pay raises, vacations $\chi^2(4)=16.764$, $p < .01$	Essential/Important 64% FL; 54% CA
Deals with words and data, rather than people $\chi^2(4)=9.725$, $p < .05$	Essential to/Would like 21% CA; 14% FL
Follows routine with few changes $\chi^2(4)=19.671$, $p < .001$	Essential to/Would like 45% CA; 34% FL
Involves knowing people well, as Corpsman $\chi^2(4)=10.181$, $p < .05$	Essential to/Would like 58% CA; 49% FL
Sometimes involves strange hours $\chi^2(4)=12.574$, $p < .05$	Essential/Important 9% CA; 3% FL
Involves physical risk $\chi^2(4)=9.720$, $p < .05$	Essential/Important 11% CA; 5% FL

[a]All of the paired proportions differed from each other at $p < .05$.

Table 2

Responses of Female and Male
Recruits to Background Items

Item	Percentage	
	Female	Male
1. Size of home town		
Less than 5,000	22	18
5,000-20,000	30	28
20,000-100,000	24	23
More than 100,000	14	13
Suburb of metropolitan area	10	18
$\chi^2(4)=23.091$, $p < .001$		
2. Desire to live there again		
Yes	45	63
Maybe	33	25
No	22	12
$\chi^2(2)=72.036$, $p < .001$		
3. Where lived longest before Navy		
Own family home	81	81
Home of guardian/foster home	2	2
Institution or boarding school	0	1
First in family home later somewhere else	16	15
Early years not in family home, later was	1	1
$\chi^2(4)=2.860$, $p > .05$		
4. Happiness level of home		
Happy, most of the time	56	61
About even, happy/unhappy	30	28
Neither happy nor unhappy	7	8
Unhappy most of the time	7	4
$\chi^2(4)=13.019$, $p < .01$		
5. Number of children in home		
One	6	4
Two	16	13
Three	22	22
Four	22	19
Five or more	34	41
$\chi^2(4)=14.440$, $p < .01$		

Table 2 (Continued)

Item	Percentage	
	Female	Male
6. Birth position		
Only child	5	3
Oldest	31	32
In middle	42	44
Youngest	23	21
$\chi^2(4)=4.854$, $p > .05$		
7. Number of people in home		
One-three	9	6
Four-six	59	54
Seven-nine	25	29
Ten-twelve	6	8
Thirteen or more	2	2
$\chi^2(4)=14.680$, $p < .01$		
8. Number of bedrooms		
None	0	1
One	1	2
Two	9	10
Three	53	46
Four or more	37	40
$\chi^2(4)=15.634$, $p < .01$		
9. Move away from home prior to Navy?		
Yes, didn't get along with parents	10	9
Yes, didn't get along with brother/sister	2	1
Yes, felt ready to be on my own	30	34
Yes, felt should leave to ease finances	3	9
No	56	47
$\chi^2(4)=40.958$, $p < .001$		
10. During childhood mother was . . .		
Not employed and seemed happy	36	38
Homemaker, but wished for career	12	11
Employed, but preferred to be homemaker	14	11
Employed and didn't want to be homemaker	7	4
Employed and enjoyed both career and homemaker	32	36
$\chi^2(4)=16.135$, $p < .01$		

Table 2 (Continued)

Item	Percentage	
	Female	Male
11. Males in household when growing up		
Yes, father	19	25
Yes, brother(s)	5	7
Yes, father and brother(s)	72	63
Yes, other males (no father or brother)	2	2
No males	2	3
$\chi^2(4)=18.999$, $p < .001$		
12. Activities in high school		
Student government	3	6
Band, orchestra, glee club, drama, debate	22	14
Cheerleader or sport team	17	38
Special interest school sponsored club	14	7
Several of the above	44	36
$\chi^2(4)=111.379$, $p < .001$		
13. Activities participated in for one year or more		
Girl or Boy Scouts, Girls or Boys Club	18	20
Little League, Pop Warner, etc.	9	27
Church youth group	17	6
4-H or FFA	7	4
Several of the above	50	43
$\chi^2(4)=124.473$, $p < .001$		
14. Source of money in high school		
Regular allowance	11	8
From parents, as needed	20	13
Earned money at odd jobs	10	13
Earned money at regular jobs	24	38
Both from parents and from job	36	29
$\chi^2(4)=61.815$, $p < .001$		
15. Age		
Eighteen or younger	44	34
Nineteen	18	21
Twenty	11	14
Twenty-one to twenty-five	23	30
Twenty-six or older	4	1
$\chi^2(4)=45.374$, $p < .001$		

Table 2 (Continued)

Item	Percentage	
	Female	Male
16. Ever come close to getting married		
No	37	50
Yes, once	37	52
Yes, more than once	11	6
Married now	7	9
Was married	7	3
$\chi^2(4)=60.065$, $p < .001$		
17. Ever detained by law enforcement officer?		
Yes	8	28
No	92	72
$\chi^2(1)=125.42$, $p < .001$		

The question of mother's employment outside the home, while resulting in very similar proportions of affirmative answers from both samples, yielded a significant chi-square. A more careful examination of the responses reveals that 19 percent of the women versus 15 percent of the men had mothers who would have preferred not to be homemakers. It is possible, of course, that the female respondents were simply more aware of their mothers' role conflict, since somewhat more women also answered that their mothers were "employed outside the home but would have preferred to stay home." While 96 percent of the individuals in both samples had a father or brother living in the home, women more often than men had both male relatives living at home.

The two sexes differed significantly on the kinds and number of extracurricular activities in which they participated during high school (items 12 and 13), with women participating in multiple activities to a greater extent than men. A partial explanation for the latter finding is that more men than women held jobs during their high school years.

The age of women at the time of enlistment showed greater variability than that of men. Item 15 shows that only 52 percent of the female recruits were between 19 and 25 years of age versus 65 percent of the male recruits. The question of marriage resulted in different distributions, also. While slightly more men were married when they enlisted, a larger proportion of the women reported having been married and having come close to getting married. The last of the background questions was answered as anticipated. Ninety-two percent of the women, as compared to 72 percent of the men, had never been detained by a law enforcement officer for a nontraffic violation.

Enlistment Variables

For purposes of analyses, the 25 enlistment variables were further categorized as preenlistment variables (N = 11) and motivation factors (N = 14). Table 3 provides female and male responses to the items concerning preenlistment variables. As shown, similar responses were given to only two items--those concerning the recruit's mother's and friends' attitudes toward enlistment (Nos. 9 and 11). The first three items in Table 3 tap amount of exposure to the military during youth. While only 4 percent of both samples came from active duty military families, the fathers of 74 percent of the women and 69 percent of the men had been in the service (item 1). The very large chi-square obtained on item 2 is partially a function of different wording in the questionnaires; that is, women were asked about a female relative or friend while men were asked about a male. Fifty-six percent of the women versus only 4 percent of the men indicated that they knew no one of their own sex who had been in the service. Analysis of responses to item 3, the following question, shows that among those women who had had the opportunity to discuss the military with a servicewoman, 25 percent had never done so. Thus, taken in combination, items 2 and 3 indicate that 83 percent of the men had first-hand information about what military life entails for a member of their sex, compared to only 33 percent of the women.

Table 3

Comparisons of Female and Male
Responses to Preenlistment Variables

Item	Percentage	
	Female	Male
1. Father ever been in service		
No	26	31
In Navy when I enlisted	1	2
In other branch when I enlisted	3	2
Had been in service	65	59
Had been in more than one branch	5	7
$\chi^2(4)=13.213$, $p < .02$		
2. Same sex friend/relative been in service		
Yes, father, grandfather, brother	8	33
Yes, good friend	20	17
Yes, good friend and a relative	15	45
No, I know quite a bit what it's like	25	2
No, I don know much about it	31	2
$\chi^2(4)=754.053$, $p < .001$		
3. Discussed military with same sexed friend/ relative		
Yes, frequently	20	30
Yes, some	55	56
No, not at all	25	14
$\chi^2(2)=36.422$, $p < .001$		
4. How decisions are usually made		
By first impulse, it's usually right	7	6
Make up mind quickly	35	28
Get all facts, think it through	26	33
Get facts, think, talk it over, think	20	23
Have hard time making up mind	12	10
$\chi^2(4)=18.525$, $p < .001$		
5. How long decision to enlist took		
Less than one week	13	13
Less than one month	26	29
Less than six weeks	28	31
More than six months	34	26
$\chi^2(3)=14.125$, $p < .01$		

Table 3 (Continued)

Item	Percentage	
	Female	Male
6. Considered other branches		
No	28	34
Thought about other services, chose Navy	27	34
Inquired into other service programs	45	33
$\chi^2(2)=35.355$, $p < .001$		
7. Who encouraged you most to join Navy		
Parent	13	11
Brother/sister	3	2
Friend	4	4
Recruiter	5	3
No one	75	80
$\chi^2(4)=12.505$, $p < .05$		
8. Father's attitude toward enlistment		
Approved	88	93
Disapproved	12	7
$\chi^2(1)=11.228$, $p < .001$		
9. Mother's attitude toward enlistment		
Approved	89	90
Disapproved	11	10
$\chi^2(1)=.020$, $p > .05$		
10. Brother's/sister's attitude		
Approved	83	87
Disapproved	17	13
$\chi^2(1)=5.215$, $p < .05$		
11. Friend's attitude		
Approved	59	59
Disapproved	41	41
$\chi^2(1)=.007$, $p > .05$		

The next four items probe the process of deciding to join the Navy. As seen in item 4, women more often than men reported that they usually make up their minds quickly, although not impulsively. For the specific question of how long it took to reach their enlistment decision (item 5), a significantly greater proportion of women than men had deliberated for more than 6 months (34% versus 26%). Forty-five percent of the female recruits also inquired about the other military services before choosing the Navy, as compared to 33 percent of the male recruits (item 6). Finally, the majority of both samples felt enlisting was entirely their own decision, but women reported more encouragement from parents and recruiters than did men (item 7).

An analysis of responses to the last four items, which concern the attitudes of parents, siblings, and friends toward the respondents' enlistment, yielded some interesting differences. Male relatives displayed more approval toward a young man joining the Navy than they did for a young woman. Peers had the highest disapproval rate and appeared not to differentiate in their opinion of the military as a career choice for either of the sexes.

Responses to the 14 motivation items were made on a 5-point scale ranging from A (very important) to E (unimportant). Table 4 presents these items ranked in descending order by proportion of combined "very important" and "important" responses given by women. The data clearly show that women enlist for the same reasons as men, since the correlation between the two rankings is .96. That is, the three motives having the greatest positive influence on both women and men were the desires to make something of their lives, to acquire more education and training, and to travel and meet people. The three least important for both sexes were having friends or relatives in the Navy, leaving their families or hometowns, and helping their families financially. Only in the mid-area of the table do reversals occur. The largest discrepancies between proportions of each sex endorsing a motive as important indicate that women considered the opportunity to travel and meet people more important than men, while more men than women enlisted in order to help their families.

Occupational Values

Responses to the 39 items on occupational values were made on the following five-point scale:

A--I do not want a job that includes this.
B--It doesn't matter to me whether it is part of the job or not.
C--I would like this to be part of the job.
D--Having this is very important to me.
E--I would not take a job if this wasn't part of it.

For purposes of analyses, these five alternatives were combined into the following categories: (1) negative factors (A), (2) neutral/mildly positive factors (B and C), and (3) essential/important (D and E).

Table 4

Comparison of Female and Male Responses
To Motivational Items

Factor		Percentage Stating Important	
		Female	Male
1.	Wanted to make something out of my life	95	90
2.	Wanted more education, new skills, training	89	89
3.	Wanted to travel and meet people	85	72
4.	Wanted financial independence	79	70
5.	Needed to know my capacity better	75	67
6.	Have a basic respect for the military	71	64
7.	Wanted security offered by Navy	64	60
8.	Needed Navy pay and benefits	63	67
9.	Needed a job and few jobs where I lived	62	61
10.	Wanted to go to college but didn't have the money	43	42
11.	Unready for college, dissatisfied with current job	41	48
12.	Wanted to help family financially	22	34
13.	Wanted to leave family or hometown	19	13
14.	Have relative or friend in Navy	16	11

Note: The Spearman rank-difference coefficient (rho) for these data = .96.

Tables 5 and 6 present the occupational variables that are valued significantly more by one sex than the other. As shown in Table 5, the men appear to have valued their opportunities in the Navy more than the women did. Also noteworthy in this table is the amount of variability in the male sample; that is, although more men than women valued a job that requires creative thought (42% vs. 36%), more men than women also wanted to do just one job and to follow a set routine (27% vs. 16%; 12% vs. 7%). Men, more so than women, wanted increasing responsibility (35% vs. 27%), little supervision (23% vs. 15%), the freedom to decide what needs to be done (23% vs. 14%). In spite of this, a greater, though very small, proportion of men shied away from taking the final responsibility (8% vs. 4%). Conversely, it is apparent that the women showed significantly less interest in working outdoors (19% vs. 32%), being involved with machines (17% vs. 27%), and working primarily with their hands (17% vs. 29%), factors that are associated with many Navy jobs.

Table 6 indicates that despite the women's desire for a cheerful, clean work environment, they also were searching for intrinsic rewards. They expressed needs for people-oriented, altruistic work and a desire for exciting, competitive situations. However, even though these values were more descriptive of the female than the male sample, it is important to note that over half of the males also rated them as essential/important.

Occupational values that are considered to be negative by at least 10 percent of one sample are presented in Table 7. Again, the women's greater preference for working with people, rather than with printed materials or machines (44% vs. 34% for men), is evidenced. However, a reluctance to influence others also is present. More women than men were adverse to jobs involving physical risk (35% vs. 22%), a lot of planning (20% vs. 7%), and monotony (33% vs. 21%). The greater variability in the male sample is again noted; that is, although the table indicates that more men than women didn't want a job in which someone else would take final responsibility for their work (21% vs. 29%), Table 5 shows that proportionately more men than women also <u>did</u> want this protection (8% vs. 4%).

Table 5

Occupational Values Men
Endorse More Than Women

Value	Percentage Stating Essential/Important		z-ratio of Difference
	Men	Women	
Provides opportunity to advance to supervisory position	55%	42%	4.99**
Rewards those who work harder than others	50%	40%	3.65**
Allows me to use my imagination, creativity, and own ideas	42%	36%	2.28*
Gives me a chance to take on more and more responsibilities	35%	27%	3.17**
Includes working outdoors, at least part of the time	32%	19%	5.47**
Involves working mostly with my hands and having the results seen by others	29%	17%	4.94**
Requires doing one job well, rather than different things at different times	27%	16%	5.17**
Involves working mostly with things, such as machines	27%	17%	3.98**
Involves little close supervision	23%	15%	3.87**
Lets me decide what needs to be done and how to do it	23%	14%	4.10**
Gains me admiration and publicity for what I do	17%	7%	5.71**
Requires I do a lot of planning	15%	6%	4.99**
Follows a set plan or routine with few changes	12%	7%	2.98**
Has someone checking my work so that the final responsibility is not mine	8%	4%	3.06**

**$p < .01$
*$p < .05$

Table 6

Occupational Values Women
Endorse More than Men

Value	Percentage Stating Essential/Important		z-ratio of Difference
	Women	Men	
Provides a cheerful, clean work environment	67%	53%	5.02**
Gives me a feeling of really doing something important	63%	58%	2.05*
Helps others or in some way makes the world a little better place	57%	48%	3.32**
Encourages open communication between supervisor and worker	57%	50%	2.93**
Involves excitement, competition, and new situations	46%	40%	2.38*
Gives me more personal than financial rewards	38%	25%	4.92**
Requires contact with a lot of people during the day	32%	19%	5.54**

** $p < .01$
* $p < .05$

Table 7

Occupational Values Endorsed as Negative
By at Least 10% of One Sample

Value	Percentage Stating "Do not want job that includes this"		z-ratio of Difference
	Female	Male	
Deals with printed materials and data rather than with people	44	34	3.76**
Involves physical risk	35	22	5.44**
Involves working mostly with things, such as machines	34	13	9.94**
Follows a set plan or routine with few changes	33	21	4.67**
Sometimes involves strange irregular hours	23	21	0.86
Has someone checking my work so that the final responsibility is not mine	21	29	3.12**
Requires that I do a lot of planning	20	7	7.28**
Influences the way people think as in teaching	20	10	5.32**
Influences the lives of others	14	10	2.00*
Requires meeting deadlines	13	13	0.04
Requires doing one job well, rather than different things at different times	10	7	2.35*

**$p < .01$
*$p < .05$

CONCLUSIONS

The data demonstrated that women and men entering the Navy represent two separate and distinct populations. They differed on almost all of the background and enlistment variables and almost two-thirds of the work values, or a total of 58 of the 81 questionnaire items considered in the study. Yet, emphasizing the differences between the sexes clouds the issue since an important aspect of the study was determining whether women enlist in the Navy for the same or similar reasons as men do. Clearly, the answer is affirmative. Members of both sexes indicated that they were most strongly motivated by the desires to make something of their lives, to gain more education or training, and to travel and meet people. The popularly held belief that women join the military to escape from their families or hometown was not supported by these data.

Considering the socialization process that occurs throughout childhood, fostering sex-appropriate behavior, the similarities between the sexes were surprising. They were in agreement on over one-third of items concerning occupational values; further, many of the significant differences were more a matter of degree rather than typifying females or males. Nevertheless, the responses of women indicated their need to be involved with people in their day-to-day work and a distaste for working with machines, data, and printed materials. This finding supports the stereotype of female work values, particularly in view of their strong desire for a clean, cheerful environment and a reluctance to take physical risks. Since a basic incompatibility exists between these values and many military jobs, one wonders why the women in the current sample concluded that the Navy would satisfy their needs. Analyses of the background data revealed that they didn't have any female friends or relatives with military experience who might have given them realistic information and that they were not influenced by others in deciding to enlist. It may be that they were either reared with a deep sense of patriotism and believed that, by joining the military, they could make the world a better place to live in, or were misled by the image of the pre-1975 Navy in which women were utilized in support positions in offices and hospitals.

The female recruits in the current sample do not seem to have high career aspirations, since over half did not feel that having the opportunity to advance to a supervisory position was important to them. Neither do they appear to be contemporary young women, eager to enter the male-dominated fields formerly closed to them, despite their high value of exciting, competitive situations.

Unfortunately, because many Navy ratings in communication, administration, and health care have their full complement of females, a considerable number of these women will have to be assigned to nontraditional jobs. The resultant dissonance between their values and work experiences could lead to considerable job dissatisfaction.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The problem outlined above could be partially alleviated with relatively little effort. The first step involves education; that is, the potential applicant pool needs to be better informed about the new role of Navy women and recruiters must be brought up to date to ensure that they are not guilty of inadvertently passing on misinformation. The second step involves recruitment; that is, women whose value structures are consistent with nontraditional Navy jobs should be consciously recruited through the various media. Approximately 20 percent of the women in this study held such values. Because the number of qualified applicants far exceeds the current quotas on women entering the Navy, a high degree of selectivity is also feasible.

It is recommended that the following steps be taken:

1. Although recruiting films, video tapes, billboards, posters, etc., have been reviewed for sexual stereotypy, many of these materials lack illustrations of Navy women. A reasonable number should be revised to include females functioning in nontraditional military roles to communicate the message that women will be assigned to all jobs from which they are not restricted by law.

2. The Enlisted Navy Recruiter Orientation course should be amended to include a session on the utilization of women in the modern Navy. In addition, the aspects of recruit training, uniform regulations, general detail assignments, and Navy policies that are different for the sexes should be discussed.

While the occupational values of women currently enlisting in the Navy seem inconsistent with many of the ratings available to them, other women with compatible values probably can be recruited. Young women who want to work primarily with equipment, rather than people are employed throughout the civilian sector. Thus, a partial answer to the Navy's perennial personnel problem lies in tapping into this reservoir of talents. However, as long as women are prohibited by Federal Code from assignments involving sea duty, the range and number of jobs they can perform in the "real" Navy of submarines, ships, and aircraft will be minimal. These billets are responsible for the lure of the Navy, distinguishing it from all other military services. Until these billets are open to all personnel, regardless of sex, it is doubtful if women wanting the same things from a job as Navy men will be recruited and retained.

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